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# THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

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## THE PROBLEMS APPROACH TO THE SOCIAL STUDIES

S. P. McCutchen

The first need of the teacher is to discover why he is teaching. Realism might require some teachers to admit that the mediocre living they earn is their chief reason, but most of them have professional objectives which they cherish. Unfortunately, clarity in definition and analysis of those objectives is not always present. The teacher who is contributing to the vocational preparation of students is not to be confused on this question as easily as those whose field lies in that area labeled "liberal-cultural," where some inviting pitfalls are accessible for those who indulge in basic thinking.

The most common of these fallacies can be called the "delayed-effect" rationalization. The assumption being that education must turn out educated persons, the teacher analyzes an ideally educated adult—usually himself—and reasons that his task is to give to his students those knowledges which such a person should possess. Thus the learner's mind is conceived to be a kind of deep-freeze vat into which knowledge, information, facts, and nuggets of wisdom may be stored until the time comes, five or twenty years later, when the need or opportunity to use them may arise.

Such a position rests on these questionable assumptions:

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1. That the teacher as a curriculum maker can predict accurately those areas and problems with which society and the student will be concerned later on. This in itself is not too unreasonable, for the serious student of the social scene can project with some assurance the continuation of many trends whose delineation is now clear. On the other hand, the dynamics of our present social organization is rather generally admitted, and the curriculum maker who bases his whole teaching on his prediction of the future is taking a gamble.

2. That the teacher can motivate students to learn now content that will not be useful to them for a number of years. This principle of teaching in anticipation of need permeates our entire educational structure. As one student put it: "We spend so much time getting background that we never reach the foreground." Herein undoubtedly lies one of the most potent reasons why students find history dull, government boring, and economics incomprehensible. Therefore, many simply do not learn and, with some confidence, trust their ingenuity to produce a good grade.

3. That even if prediction has been accurate and motivation successful so that students have learned the assigned content, they will retain that knowledge in useful form during a five- or twenty-year period until they need to use it. Here is the most questionable assumption of the content-mastery school of thought, for most studies of retention show that within a year after the conclusion of a course, about 80 per cent of that which had been learned was forgotten, unless opportunity to apply the learning had been present.

If, then, mastery of content as the main objective of education is untenable, for what should the teacher strive? Let us approach the question afresh and assume that education's role is to prepare people to live effectively in a democratic society. Certainly no one would quarrel with this; indeed, stated thus generally it is so platitudinous that it might even fail to stimulate critical thought. As we analyze it, however, its meaning cuts more apparently into educational decisions.

Effective living in a democratic society requires certain specific attitudinous skills of which the following are suggested as central:

1. The recognition of the dignity and worth of individuals

2. Concern for the welfare of others, both in face-to-face groups, and on a planetary scale
3. The skills of effective social participation
4. The use of trained, critical thinking on the social problems with which one is confronted

Each of these skills in turn lends itself profitably to further analysis, to reduction to operational terms, but limitation of space does not permit an analysis of each one here. The fourth, however, as the element of democratic living that requires and justifies the problems approach, must receive greater consideration.

Critical thinking has been given several synonyms, such as problem solving, the process of intelligence, and scientific thinking, and has been subjected to even more analyses of its process. While the spirit of the process is that of science, its use with social data requires the delineation of a process different somewhat from that which the physical scientist would use in his laboratory. The analysis that carries the greatest meaning to the writer runs as follows: One who applies critical thinking to a social problem (1) defines the problem clearly taking cognizance of the social values involved; (2) lists and considers the various feasible courses of action; (3) collects and interprets pertinent data; (4) reaches a tentative decision, based on the data; and (5) acts in accordance with the decision.

If the analysis is reasonable, the implications and mandate for the social-studies teacher can be drawn. Democratic society demands of its members not only that they *can* use such a process, but that they *will*. Education for democratic living must train persons to the skills involved and sell them the idea of the desirability of using the process on the social problems with which they are confronted. Skills come only from training and practice; hence, the curriculum must offer opportunities for repeated practice of such a process. Conviction of the efficacy of such a process will come only upon demonstration that the process is effective on problems significant to the learner.

If the problems approach is used, the content of the social-studies program cannot deal with areas remote from the concerns of the student. Its very essence must be those problems and situations that have actual or potential bearing upon him and his learning. Hence it is clear that the basic orientation of the social-studies program must be in the chronology of the contemporary, for in the present, not in Periclean Greece or Colonial America, are to be found the situations that are problems to today's Americans.

It is pertinent here to consider whether the problems approach means the complete individualization of teaching, since problems, or at least their specific focuses, are likely to vary markedly from person to person. On the contrary, group work will probably be more effective during most of the course. If the curriculum maker should secure a completely independent and dependable listing of problems significant to the members of a given class, upon tabulation it would be found that many problem areas would be common to all lists, although perhaps the specific focus of individuals would vary. This distinction between problem and problem area is important; housing, for example, is a problem area containing innumerable specific problems, such as: In what community should I live? Should I buy or rent? Is rent control desirable? Should rents be raised? Should government undertake low-cost housing projects? How is slum clearance to be achieved?

Another important notation is that problems or problem areas *potentially* significant to students are proper grist for the problems course. One of the worst perversions of the problems approach is its use only on the transitory, ephemeral, and unimportant problems of students. Instead, the teacher's mandate is clearly to enlarge the horizons and social consciousness of his students. In a way, one might say that the assignment to teachers is: "If they have no problems, see that they get some."

This requires that the teacher be a serious student of the social scene, aware of the tensions and disagreements on values in our

world, as well as a person sensitive to the concerns, drives, tensions, and interests of his pupils. Only in this combination can the most effective scope of proper content for the social-studies program be achieved.

While the choice of the problem areas to be studied should rest, in the final analysis, with the teacher, or in some form of co-operative teacher-pupil planning, and while a considerable amount of group study and discussion is most valuable in the problems approach, it should not be forgotten that one of the ends sought is to increase the skill of each student in defining properly the problem he is to study. Hence each unit of work should provide the assignment that each student should define, under guidance, a problem significant to him individually, within the problem area being studied, and work through the process above delineated. Obviously, if several members of a class select the same specific problem, the values of co-operative group work would be capitalized.

If the definitions of problems are properly established, it will be found that there are at least two sides to every question and for most of them more than two; several courses of action, in other words, are usually available for any problem. Students would be urged and aided to thorough thinking on this step, and the values of group discussion on it are obvious.

In that part of the process that deals with collecting and interpreting information, the teacher whose training has been conventional will find himself on more familiar ground. Skill in the use of the library, efficiency in finding pertinent data in texts and other reference books, ability to interpret maps, charts, graphs, and tables, and skill in both extensive reading for point of view and intensive reading for specific facts are all elementary objectives which most experienced teachers are competent to serve. Teaching the proper interpretation of data may call for more thought, for the essential interpretation vital to the problems approach is the establishment of the connectivity of the historical to the present, of

cause-and-effect relations, of the applicability of principles to problems. Most teachers whose preparation has been thorough enough in content know these phases of interpretation; not enough teachers have tried to teach them appropriately to their own classes.

It is in this step of the problem-solving process that a good part of the apparent difference between the problems approach and conventional emphases on content coverage begins to diminish. The problems teacher does not permit his students to take it all out in talk; he insists that content pertinent to the problem being studied be discovered, interpreted, and mastered. He believes that the study of history is an essential part of the problems approach, for one cannot fully understand a modern problem unless he knows how it got to be the problem that it is; i.e., its history. The chief justification for the teaching of history is that it helps to explain the contemporary. So, in the problems approach, a study of history is a *must*, as are the pertinent contributions of economics, political science, and geography.

Again the essential emphasis must be underlined: the goal sought is that students be trained to apply all steps of the process independently. Hence the teacher must insist that students learn to discover material, not have it assigned to them in hunks of consecutive pages "in the book." The teacher may not predigest material for students, making the interpretations for them, except as the necessary "show-how" step that is a part of all good teaching.

The fourth step in critical thinking in relation to a social problem is to reach a tentative decision consistent with the data. Here the difference between the physical sciences and the social sciences is most apparent. In the former, the researcher can and should wait until all of his data are available before reaching his conclusions or his decision. With a social problem, however, the data are never all available as long as the problem is alive. Citizens are, however, confronted by a social need to act: an election day approaches, a bill comes before Congress, and expression of opinion is requested; hence, decisions must be made, although further study would be



profitable. Thus the word *tentative* becomes important. The thoughtful person decides and acts at a certain time because the problem demands it, but he holds his decision as tentative and revises it if and when new data are found or presented to him.

The implications for the teacher are perhaps obvious. Many people, particularly adolescents, have their opinions or decisions on social issues ready at hand as soon as the question is opened. Indeed, one may say that the less information, the more positive the opinion. For those few, then, who shrink from making any decision, the pedagogical task is to urge them toward such action when appropriate study has been completed. For the others, so positive in their prejudgments, good teaching requires a constant challenging of their positions and an urging toward a full study of other points of view. And for all of the members of the class, the teacher must return to the problem area, even after the completion of the study of it, with new data that would be persuasive of a changing point of view.

The availability of appropriate action is the ultimate test of the suitability of a given problem area as a topic of study by a specific class group. If, after the decision, there is no way to carry the decision, tentatively reached, into action, then it seems safe to assume that the area was neither actually nor potentially significant to those students. At the same time, it should be recognized that many types of social action, logically proper for students to take, are not open to them, particularly if they are adolescents, because adult society frowns on "kids" being concerned with or taking a part in adult affairs. Perhaps this situation is itself a suitable subject for study by the problems approach.

If the basic objectives here discussed are sincerely sought, it should be clear that evaluation of student growth must be made in terms of the objectives accepted. The conventional essay and short-answer tests may be used to some extent but that extent will not be nearly so great as at present. Such tests have their place in determining whether students have collected enough of the right kinds of



data; their use should be wholly diagnostic and not to measure achievement. More important would be the use of instruments that would indicate students' abilities to interpret data, to recognize assumptions, to draw conclusions consistent to the data presented, to think consistently on social issues, and so forth. For no matter how fine the phrasing of the teacher's objectives, nor how deep the sincerity of his belief in them, unless he tests, records, and reports in terms of those objectives, the students will not accept them as valid.

The problems approach, then, is an attempt to meet more directly and logically the demands democracy makes upon its devotees and upon the schools that train them. Until we have an intelligent citizenry, trained specifically in critical thinking, there is no good solution to any social problem.

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## A SOCIAL-STUDIES DEPARTMENT STUDIES THE CURRICULUM

J. C. Aldrich

The temptation, in curriculum revision, is always to make haste so slowly that the result is to rename courses, to rearrange them, or to patch together portions of several through liberal use of scissors and paste pot. Hence, such revision at the secondary and college level has seldom been fundamental. The members of the social-studies department of the School of Education of New York University hoped to make a fundamental revision when it became necessary to reorganize the patchwork of introductory courses that had accumulated over several decades.

In the fall and winter of 1945-1946, the department explored the attitudes of its members and of the several hundred students in the introductory courses. All felt that there were inadequacies in content, organization, and evaluation. The recently returned G.I.'s believed that the social studies contributed to knowledge about the past, and to an understanding of the framework of the social sciences, but there seemed to be insufficient emphasis upon the problems of the present in a world of selfish nationalisms. The students expressed an interest in the development of skills in thinking and analysis rather than by the recollection of facts. The first step to be taken by the department seemed to be the analysis of the purposes of social-studies instruction at the junior-college level.

As the department began to define its purposes it found the widest variation in emphases. One member took the position that the key to thinking is the mastery of facts; as one knows more and more, he will think more efficiently. Another held that emphasis should be placed on the inculcation of positive social attitudes. Youth would then participate effectively in the solution of the problems of America and the world. All included some statement of the fundamental necessity of skills in problem solving. After several weeks of dis-

cussion, a subcommittee was assigned the task of wording a statement of purpose. The statement was revised by the department and accepted, in the spring of 1946, as a tentative department decision. Their statement was this:

General education in the social studies should help students to acquire a social-minded, effective world outlook, developed by:

1. An understanding of man's institutional groups and their interaction
2. An evaluation of different groups and cultures and one's relation to them
3. Skill in learning, thinking, expression, and action
4. Practice in and for effective social and civic participation

It was recognized that this statement would be significant only as it was expressed in classroom teaching and in the evaluation of student progress. In order that evaluation might be related to this statement of purposes, some time was spent in defining expected student behavior. The four parts of the general statement were illustrated thus:

1. Understanding of man's institutional groups and their interaction
  - a) The student should have:
    - (1) Increased understanding of the methods of social interaction and the means of social control
    - (2) Increased understanding of man's social, economic, and political organization, and their historical perspective
    - (3) Increased understanding of the trends and tensions in the United States, in other nations, and between nations
2. Evaluation of different groups and cultures and one's relation to them
  - a) The student should:
    - (1) Be concerned with the welfare of distant and near fellow human beings
    - (2) Recognize the dignity and worth of the individual
    - (3) Have a sense of individual and collective responsibility
    - (4) Have an interest in the problems of other peoples
    - (5) Be concerned with the extension of democracy
    - (6) Desire to submerge individualism in co-operation

3. Skill in learning, thinking, expression, and action
  - a) The student should have:
    - (1) Ability to solve problems
      - (a) By defining problem
      - (b) By identifying feasible courses of action
      - (c) By collecting and interpreting information
      - (d) By reaching a tentative decision based on sound inference
      - (e) By acting in accordance with decisions made
    - (2) Ability to apply the results of learning
    - (3) Ability to evaluate his learning and thinking
    - (4) Ability to express social data in oral and written form
4. Practice in, and for effective social and civic participation
  - a) The student should:
    - (1) Participate effectively in group planning and in carrying out plans
    - (2) Participate as leader or follower, as the situation demands
    - (3) Participate actively in programs of civic and social improvement

While the department accepted the statements of behavior in Part 1 and Part 3, it was felt that further definition was needed in Part 2 and Part 4.

Other problems of instruction immediately became important. What would students and teachers do in the classroom? What kinds of tests and records would be needed? What courses would be organized? What content would be used? All were briefly examined, but it was felt that the last would influence decisions on the others. American history, world history, contemporary history, economics, political science, and geography had been dealt with in separate courses, had included the usual overlapping and duplication, and had not contributed satisfactorily to the stated purposes after years of trial. Each had been effective in direct proportion to its relation to the others. Yet, these relations were difficult to plan with so many possible combinations of subjects. A unifying thread was needed, and unification seemed possible where the subjects focused on particular problems. As the country went through reconversion, trials

of wage-price policies, national strikes, proposals of limitations of the powers of unions, it was apparent that in regard to each, American history, economics, political science, world history, and geography had important contributions to make. Yet, each of these problems was too narrow to bring together enough significant knowledge to make problem analysis effective. The idea of the "problem area," however, would include the personal and social interest in the problem and extend the problem study into the larger national and international framework necessary for the achievement of the purposes which the department had set for itself. It was decided to use problem areas as the unifying threads to select content and to organize it in courses.

The selection of problem areas was an experience in social analysis. Of the great number which might be used, twenty, selected by the department as apparently important to youths and adults were judged likely to continue in importance for a number of years, and seemed to have adequate materials for instruction. These were grouped in "courses" so there would be a balance of national and international and economic, social, and political problems in each two-hour or four-hour course. The problem areas selected were these: the worker in an industrial society; government and the individual; conservation of human and material resources; the process of public opinion; world political co-operation; government and business; apportioning the national income; racial and religious tensions and conflicts; world economic co-operation; effective urban and rural life; inflation and deflation; our population problems (migration and population); formulation and expression of a philosophy of life; challenges to capitalism; colonies in the modern world; nationalism and sovereignty; dependency and social security; development and control of atomic energy; centralization of government; education for the modern world.

It was not proposed that any number of problem areas would be

studied in any one term's work. It was assumed that three might be the average number in a two-hour course although an able, interested class might devote a term's work to only two of them.

Even before the allotment of problem areas, the members of the department began to study the ways in which they would be used. The first problem area, *The Worker in an Industrial Society*, was selected for analysis. Each member prepared teaching material which was grouped in a teaching file or resource unit. The statement of purpose was adapted to the topic. Typical student questions and concerns were listed. Outlines were made of the possible content that might be used. Specialists were asked to suggest relevant content to be included. Classroom procedures were outlined, including suggestions for individual and small-group work as well as plans for classroom study and discussion. Materials of instruction were listed, including general as well as technical sources, periodicals and pamphlets, community resources for speakers and trips, films and records, and propaganda materials generally available by press and radio. Suggestions were made for the evaluation of the purposes agreed on through the use of the materials of the unit.

This group preparation of a teaching file was followed by the construction of one by each member of the department. This gave each one the experience of preparing material for this course, and the files served as a reservoir of materials and methods for later use.

In order to translate this educational planning from department discussion to the classroom, a trial of the course was arranged for the school year 1946-1947. The director of the curriculum of elementary-education majors agreed to have the new organization of content and class procedure tried out in three courses, two composed of freshmen and one of sophomores. Frequent conferences evaluated the practical application of the plan. Two major difficulties arose: one was the problem of materials, the other was the problem of evaluation.



There seemed to be an abundance of material on The Worker in an Industrial Society. Students were asked to purchase a copy of one of these books: Faulkner and Starr's *Labor in America*, Huberman's *The Truth About Unions*, or Brooks's *When Labor Organizes*. Suggestions were made for the utilization of library materials, books as well as serial publications. Constant reference was made to newspaper and magazine discussions of current labor problems. Visits were made to the International Ladies Garment Workers Union and the National Maritime Union. The National Association of Manufacturers and the United States Chamber of Commerce were invited to recommend persons to speak to the classes.

During the regular class sessions time was given to group analysis of the problem, to reports of individual and small-group study, and to drawing all these materials together. The problem analysis was made by students and teachers with attention to the formal steps in thinking and their practical interrelationships. Ideas were taken from the readings and from students' own experiences to shed light on the problem analysis. These were summarized by the final problem, How May Labor-Management Peace Be Promoted?

The difficulty seemed to be two-pronged: the materials were so different from those to which the students were accustomed that much of their time was spent in bringing material together rather than in covering more; and the materials did what the students were supposed to do for themselves, namely, give an approved solution. This problem was serious at the beginning of the course; it is important that freshmen be given a reasonable degree of security in the classroom. It would be possible to begin the course as a textbook course, and soon expand into problem analysis. A better solution seemed to be the preparation of text materials to fit the purposes of the course. One member of the department planned such a book. It would include a student's guide book of about thirty-five pages devoted to an analysis of a particular problem. Here would be suggestions on ways of seeing the problem, alternatives for the analysis of the problem, guides to research, suggestions for selecting hypoth-



eses, and choosing and criticizing a conclusion. It would also include a student's source book of selections from history, economics, political science, and all related fields pertinent to the problem area. In addition, it would indicate lines for further study and individual research. The department is now preparing five such unit texts for use in 1947-1948, and will have others ready by spring of 1948.

Evaluation of the purposes agreed upon was not postponed until the course was outlined. The specific description of expected behaviors was made to direct the thinking of the department to ways of recording student and teacher success. The teaching file or resource unit, *The Worker*, had an information test to judge achievement of "increased understanding of labor organizations today, and how they represent experiments in organization over a period of many years and decades"; an attitude indicator to show "recognition of the achievement of labor leaders and labor groups"; and an interpretation-of-data test to indicate "ability to evaluate information about current labor disputes."

In use, the information test had some value, but it seemed to emphasize recollection rather than reasoning. It had considerable value as a test of reading skill, but that was not considered the most important purpose of the social-studies course. The attitude indicator was useful to show the initial prejudices of the students and the ways in which attitudes changed during instruction. The danger of marking such a test was obvious; students would give "approved" responses, and it would no longer be a test of verbal attitudes. It was thought that its greatest value was in student self-evaluation and as a source of theses for class study and analysis.

The experience of the eight-year study in the development of tests of interpretation of data seemed important to the group. Such tests seemed to show achievement of several of the stated purposes: "ability to collect and interpret information," "ability to apply the results of learnings," "ability to evaluate one's learning and thinking," and, possibly, "ability to express social data in oral and written form." The department co-operated in the preparation, administra-

tion, and interpretation of such tests. Eventually, it is expected to have several interpretations of data tests for each unit. They will deal with every possible type of data: expository, tabular, diagram, graph, etc. They will illustrate many types of conclusions that might be drawn: identical terms, analogy, projection of trends, interpolation and extrapolation of data, non sequitur, etc.

If the department is concerned with the development of skills in learning, thinking, expression, action, and the evaluation, or appreciation, of different groups and cultures and one's relation to them, these measures of growth are important. Further study must be made of tests, rating scales, and other objective records of student performance. Those tests will be tried that seem to have a measure of reliability, and seem to be valid for the purposes of instruction.

As the department has prepared and studied the evaluation instruments there has been a renewed interest in methods of teaching. If skills are evaluated they must be taught. There has been little experimentation at the college level that will show methods of teaching skills in learning and thinking. Teachers have been content to measure knowledge and assume that there is a direct relation between the two. Into the question of method the department is only beginning to move. It may be the greatest challenge of this study.

The department has no report to make. It has begun to attack the major problems of general education at the college level, using the experience of secondary and college teachers who have tried to relate purposes, evaluation, and classroom experiences. It has sought the help and criticism of other departments, the administration, and the students. Student criticism of the course has been most helpful. All believe that some progress is being made toward achieving the purposes of instruction stated by the department.

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## A PHILOSOPHY FOR SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE COLLEGES

**Norma Harvester**

Only a Cassandra would predict that social science can save the world. The social disciplines are among the academic instruments that may serve to make society more cognizant of its conditions; they do not automatically pullulate with promise; they can achieve no miracles. At the same time, there is a promising significance about the possibilities of the achievement of the social studies in the colleges today.

One basis of this significance resides in the concept that the social disciplines may serve to assist the student in becoming a more sensitive and intelligent participant in the common life. This is at once an objective, an assumption, and a philosophy. It is important in any society that is aware of itself. "You philosophize when you reflect critically upon what you are actually doing in your world," as Josiah Royce has told us. Critical inquiry is sharp in a society that has emerged from the cataclysm of a major war, for war breeds a climate of criticism and re-evaluation. It is both logical and suitable that this examination invade the province of education. Indeed in a democratic society it would be most unrealistic if it did not do so.

The character of our contemporary society invites some analysis of this philosophic assumption. What is our "common life" and what constitutes enlightened participation in its circle? What is there in the essence of the social studies that qualifies them to contribute to the achievement of human competency in the business of living?

In America the common life is motivated by the impulse of the democratic ideal. Ideals cannot be delineated with dictionary precision; in attempting to do so, one captures all but the essence and so, in reality, nothing. Ideals are matters of the spirit and thus one

can feel and think democracy much more adequately than one can talk about it. We know it to be the ideal with which we, collectively at least, identify ourselves. We are aware that we can be specific about it, if it is reduced to an institutional basis in expressions of the *ideal* of *political* democracy, or the *ideal* of *economic* democracy. Competency of individual thought and action is the *sine qua non* for the effective functioning of a society geared to the spirit of democracy. John Erskine's "moral obligation to be intelligent" is at long last to be taken seriously. Difficult as the democratic pattern may be to define with any degree of linguistic care, its most fundamental attribute may be identified. Democracy in the final analysis implies an emphasis upon the individual. Specifically, democracy implies the right of the individual to operate within the ramifications of his institutional life—political, economic, social, religious, and intellectual. Within such a framework, the educated man is "one who knows what he is doing." "While," as Mark Van Doren aptly suggests, "this is too much to claim for any mortal, the aim is in the right direction." Hence democracy implies the right of the individual to err as well as to achieve. By its very essence, democracy takes the chance of error, and may have inherent within it the seeds of its own destruction, since, as Aristotle reminded us some 2,000 years ago, man is not infallible. To this end, if education in the social studies "renders individuals less harmful to society," it is performing a noble task. The end of education, then, is to produce, in its more exalted achievement, competent individuals of maximum service to society; in its more realistic achievement, individuals that are less harmful to society. Neither is an easy task. It is only intellectual honesty to recognize that intelligence may be an unstable quality. It may be easily blighted by the realities of our civilization, by the complexities of our environment, by the impact of our technological age, the press, and the radio, by the swiftness of the tempo of our million-footed society, in which caring and carelessness go almost unnoticed, and by the limitations of the

educative process itself. The individual with a mind that sees distinctions and a heart that is dispassionate is the rarest of creatures. To demur in the face of limitations, however, achieves nothing.

At this point, it is reasonable to be concerned with the social studies as a potential in the colleges for the attainment of human completeness. The very nature of the social disciplines makes it possible for them to deal with the realities of society. The social studies might well be viewed as a medium through which one can observe society. They offer the opportunity to study man in the diverse aspects of his institutional life. While the individual desire for the good ideal or the good principle is never perfectly consummated, the desire does become part of the total picture in the retrospection that is history, and is reflected in man's institutions, which are but the expression of the principle. Don Marquis, who possessed a genius for the recognition of the realities of our society, reminded us: "The individual aspiration is always defeated of its perfect fruition and expression, but it is never lost; it passes somehow into the conglomerate being of the race." To give us this "passing into the total picture," it is proper that education in the social sciences bring a blend of many intellectual strains and call upon history, economics, political science, geography, sociology, and social philosophy in an integrated approach.

It is on the collegiate level of instruction that the focus of the social studies in the direction of desirable participation in society is at once appealing and possible. The intrinsic nature of the social sciences possesses a vitality for provocative minds. It is in college that the maturity of the student excites a serious concern for the problems of life, its settings, and its institutions, for the enormous accumulation of ideologies and traditions of the past, for achievement, and for failure to achieve. At this level, training and opportunity for the student (1) to think effectively, (2) to communicate thought, (3) to make relevant judgments, and (4) to discriminate among values, is the significant but not necessarily exclusive func-



tion of the social studies. These are the ingredients from which sensitive and intelligent participation in the common life may reasonably be expected to emerge.

It has been the purpose of this article to make clear that education in the social studies possesses particular vitality for life in a democracy, particular meaning at the college level. In terms of the modern democratic ideal this preparation is the opportunity of all, rather than the few. The concept of a liberal education appeared in the slave-owning society of Athens, but its particular focus was far different from that of modern democracy. In Athens, enlightened civic participation was a select opportunity for the elite of Athenian society—the free man. Contemporary democracy views equality in terms of equal opportunity. The “gentleman’s education” has become in modern democracy the “citizen’s education.” The modern college flows from the Renaissance, when it was created to meet the fashionable ideal of the complete man. Originally aristocratic in tone, catering to the “university gentleman,” the college has, with the passage of time, deviated from this early concept and become adjusted to the fabric of a democracy. It is when we recognize this that the presence of the social disciplines in higher education assumes significance.

Much of what has been said can be crystallized into this: if higher education has percolated downward to the plain citizen, it assumes the responsibility for meeting the needs of plain citizens. Particularly today is the college endowed with a unique opportunity to develop distinguished citizenship in a democratic society. The opportunity is one that may not pass this way soon again. The maturity and seriousness of purpose of many of the G.I.’s returned to the campus are at once a challenge and a stimulus.

Higher education assumes the responsibility of making the present intelligible. Whatever else it may do, education performs the inestimable service of letting us discover that it is our lives we are at every moment passing through, and not some useless, ugly interval between what has been and what is to come. To the G.I.

this is important. The ex-warrior is intensely interested in the present; to him the past is dead, and the future is being born. He is seeking competency in the handling of his contemporary environment. He may know or will know that competency is measured in part by his ability to deal intelligently with the realities of his setting. The tenacious affinity of the social studies with that setting makes them one phase of the educative process vital for the attainment of a successful life in a democracy.

Philosophically viewed, this is the intrinsic worth of the social studies in the colleges today. And for the Cassandras in our midst, what guarantee have we that the achievement of this worth will harvest a desirable society? We have none. We can only hope that those who have acquired knowledge will be wise enough to know what to do with it.

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## **MATERIALS FOR STUDENT USE IN SOCIAL-STUDIES COURSES IN JUNIOR COLLEGES**

**Urbane O. Hennen**

The materials students use in social-studies courses are obviously one means of achieving the social-studies objectives. It would be a rare statement of objectives that would not accept as a general aim a responsibility to meet the needs of individuals in such a way as to promote the fullest possible realization of personal potentialities and effective participation in a democratic society. The translation of these aims into procedures and materials for instruction, however, may leave room for doubt. There is little to indicate that these are the objectives if one considers the experiences or the nature of materials students meet in many college courses.

If the major objective is for a student to absorb the content of a textbook and to store this information away for some possible future use, or to accept uncritically the statements of the instructor or other authorities, then nothing really basic is happening to the student's personality. In fact, unless he is given opportunities to participate actively in proposing, planning, executing, and evaluating the activities and materials needed in critical, realistic thinking, he is not developing his ability to solve personal and social problems, nor is he acquiring the skills needed for effective participation in a democratic society.

Recognition of individual differences in interests, needs, and abilities of students requires a sufficiently wide range of materials to meet individual needs and to provide a challenge to each student in the group. Now that increasing numbers of students are attending college, greater attention should be given to providing more materials in order to meet these greater differences in needs, interests, and abilities.

Social problems are not solved by a "yes" or "no" answer. It is necessary for the student to be conscious of the many facets of the

problem, and to be given opportunities to choose between alternative feasible courses of action. It is important for students to examine material presenting as many points of view as possible. If the student is to develop competence in the location of information, in analyzing data, in selecting the pertinent, in organizing, and in basing conclusions on facts, then the student should have experiences with material that develops such competence.

In developing the ability to collect and evaluate information students need to know and use the most competent authorities in the field of the social sciences. Criteria for determining authority and the difference between fact and opinion should be of concern in social studies. Propaganda is an important source of materials, and should be used, but with a realization on the part of the student that it carries a special bias or plea for a particular point of view, and that it may or may not be based on fact, or present all of the facts. In modern society it is inevitable that the student is influenced constantly by propaganda in the press and on the radio. It is important, therefore, for the student to learn how to detect propaganda and then analyze it for what it is worth by the use of propaganda materials in the classroom.

One of the richest opportunities for developing critical thinking and understanding of oneself and others lies in using the materials of the student's own daily experience and environment. The classroom can be a valuable source of information in providing an opportunity for the student to observe the process of group thinking. The problems in the community provide resources and furnish materials that have vital and functional meanings for the student.

The materials should be those which the student as an adult citizen can use and will continue to use outside of the school. The information that is learned and retained is usable and valuable only when it has meaning and importance for the student. Unrelated and general facts tend to be forgotten when they are not used, but the skills and abilities involved in solving problems important to the student can continue to be used. It is more important, it seems

to me, to teach students how to think rather than what to think. But even more important is the use of the materials in such a way as to develop a more penetrating conception of the meaning of democracy and to stimulate habitual behavior consistent with these beliefs. If citizens in a democracy are to act intelligently, then as students they should be trained in the use of materials by employing sources of information that as adult citizens they will have available all their lives.

The materials in solving problems in social studies should be drawn from any source that will aid in understanding and solving the problem, regardless of the traditional separation of the fields of subject matter. Literature, art, and music make an emotional appeal to the student that enlivens and vitalizes the problem. Problem novels and plays, as books, on the stage, and as motion pictures, may be of great social significance; also, identification with various characters may help the student to understand his own personal problems better. In achieving an increased understanding of contemporary life, content should be drawn from all the social sciences including sociology, economics, history, government, geography, and psychology. This would result in an integration of social-studies disciplines with emphasis on their value as tools.

Materials having these characteristics can be drawn from a great many sources. Textbooks are valuable sources for information, but they should not be used to the exclusion of other materials. Their weakness lies in the fact that they consist usually of ready-made interpretations and thereby deprive students of the experience of drawing their own conclusions if only one text is used. Another criticism of exclusive use of a textbook is that it may not provide the content that meets the objectives and needs of individual students, or the group, as new situations arise. This difficulty is being overcome in part in some colleges with source units written by the faculty and designed to meet the objectives they have set up. Students can also share in providing materials. It is important that they

understand resource methods and how to locate the material needed. Through discovering and interpreting the materials needed students will develop skills in using the card catalogue of the library, the source books and encyclopedias, and experience in interpreting tables of raw statistics, charts, graphs, and maps.

Pamphlets are excellent sources of information. They provide variety, add interest, are inexpensive, and present various points of view; and, in addition, they can be kept more up to date than textbooks. Several series of pamphlets deserve special consideration. The *Headline Series*, published by the Foreign Policy Association, is valuable in providing information on foreign problems and policies. The public-affairs pamphlets published by the Public Affairs Committee cover a wide range of subjects dealing with economic and social problems. Transcripts of radio programs such as America's Town Meeting of the Air and the Chicago Round Table furnish valuable material on controversial issues. Free pamphlet material is easily available from such organizations as the Congress of Industrial Organization and the National Association of Manufacturers and should be used, but with the student having a knowledge of the special interest promoted. Students should have an opportunity to participate in locating and securing pertinent pamphlet materials. Free or inexpensive materials can be secured from the various departments of the Federal Government, the National Planning Association, National Resources Committee, Federal Housing Administration, Russell Sage Foundation, Brookings Institution, League for Industrial Democracy, and countless other professional associations and foundations. A weekly bulletin listing by subject the current books, pamphlets, periodicals, and government documents in the field of the social studies is available from the Public Affairs Information Service, 11 West 40th Street, New York City.

The student's daily experiences in reading newspapers and magazines can be made more effective. In drawing on these sources students should know the editorial policies and political affiliations of

the newspaper or magazine, and should be conscious that they do not always present all the facts. All students should be skilled in the use of the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* and the *Educational Index* as tools for locating materials.

The radio is another source also familiar to students and can be used effectively in the classroom and at home. Students should recognize the influence of the commercial sponsor on the type of programs given and the biased views often expressed by commentators. Recordings can be used more extensively. The Office of Education, Washington, D.C., has many recordings available for educational purposes.

A selected and annotated list of films and information about films available for social studies may be secured from *The Educational Film Guide*, H. W. Wilson Company, New York City.

The resources of the community can be utilized in a great many ways. Field trips for observing and collecting information, visits to hospitals, community agencies, industries, labor unions, farms, etc., if intelligently planned and evaluated, can be a vital experience for students. Much data in the form of annual reports and studies made by governmental and social agencies are available and should be used. The development of techniques of interviewing, making spot maps, community surveys, organizing and reporting data, and the like, are not only of lasting value in developing skills and providing information for students, but may be of real value for use by agencies in the community in securing information needed in their work.

If the college is to accept as a major objective the development of citizens in a democracy to act intelligently, participate effectively in group living, and develop their own potentialities for full and happy living, then experiences with materials that will achieve these objectives should be a major concern in the social-studies courses.

Effective use of materials require the physical provision for their use. Our typical classroom is not a social-studies laboratory to which are brought for analysis the raw materials collected outside the classroom, nor does it usually have facilities for filing and storing pamphlets, books, maps, and charts. The social-studies laboratory should provide an atmosphere conducive to critical thinking and problem solving.

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## THE MAN IN FRONT OF THE ROOM

George L. Fersh

The man in the front of the room had been away over four years. He had changed. The world had changed. And now as he looked at the class in front of him, he knew that the students had changed, too.

Even before he thumbed through the class cards and perused the information on them, he knew what he would find—and he was right. Over half of his students were veterans of the Second World War. One or another of them had been in, or seen, virtually every part of the world except the interior of Africa. Most of the veterans had been absent from classroom study for the past three to five years. There were fifty students in the class and they had indicated a major interest in a variety of fields, ranging from art to zoology.

Yet, while the possession of this information four years ago would have thrown the instructor into an orgy of self-pity at the thought of presenting a course to such a large and conglomerate group, today the information was exhilarating to him. For he recognized that, if properly organized and guided, this classroom in which he was sitting would not have one teacher, but fifty teachers, not one fountain from which fifty would absorb knowledge, but a reservoir filled by the knowledge of fifty tributary streams. The man in front of the room knew that during that year he would spend much of his time in one of the rear seats—and he liked the idea.

As the class filed in for its next meeting, they saw in front of the room a man who felt that he had woven together many isolated threads of a changed student body, a changed world, and a changed teacher into a sturdy, vibrant pattern for course study.

The course was Contemporary Civilization. The man began to unfold his plan to the class. He explained that he had studied their backgrounds and interests very closely, and had come to the conclusion that such a fund of knowledge and interest represented



there should be shared by all. He had analyzed the course of study for which they were responsible, and had listed various areas which lent themselves to creative treatment and group work. From this list of activity assignments, they would be permitted to make their choices, and then, as committees, to prepare their contributions for presentation to the class.

That was the first phase of the strategy designed to stimulate the most from the fifty creative personalities before him.

He then told them that he had also examined and evaluated the content material of the course in order to select for further study those historical personages who were recognized as having had very significant effects on contemporary civilization. Here, too, the man had prepared a list to cover a wide variety of geographical and intellectual interests and each class member was to choose the individual whose life would be most interesting to him.

That was phase two of the strategy, and it was designed to extract the most from the fifty enriched personalities before him.

By the next class session, each of the students had expressed his desire for the creative project and the research assignment in order of preference. The selections were juggled to fit each student's desires as nearly as possible, and the course was launched; the doors were now open to let in the flood of information, and creative energy, which today's classes have in unusual degree.

Throughout the year the material poured in. The researcher of Sir James Dilke, who had chosen him because he had witnessed British imperialist policy in India, explained to the class that he had been too harsh on Dilke at first judgment. Now after reading Dilke's life, and scrutinizing Dilke's actual writings, he could understand the thinking of a man at that period in history, and could also see how many of Dilke's recommendations were unheeded or distorted. The report on Dostoevski, by a student who planned to teach literature, held the class's interest as it elaborated on the Russian writer's physical suffering and stressed the influence that factor had on his writings. A student specializing in science

illuminated the personal life of Newton and in simple terms told the remainder of the class of Newton's great contributions. The mind and background of Freud were opened by a class member engrossed in psychology, and a music student attempted an analysis of the career of Schubert. An art student brought some works of Van Gogh to class for analysis, and a veteran who had served in the military police presented a graphic picture of the contributions of Beccaria to criminology. Diplomats such as Metternich and Bismarck were studied by researchers who sought for clues to the European political mind so that they could best know what to advocate for European rehabilitation now. A young man with the ambition to be a historian analyzed the principles set forth by Von Ranke and discussed them with the class. And so it went—fifty researchers gave meaning to fifty significant lives—and fifty-one people were gaining a much broader and deeper knowledge of the development of contemporary civilization; fifty-one, for the man who sat in back of the room much of the time was also learning very much.

While the intimate glimpses into the lives of the outstanding men of the past gave the students a greater appreciation of the fact that molders of history are simply human beings in the final analysis, and this appreciation in turn developed for them a more mature analytical eye with which to look on today's leaders, the man was equally satisfied with the several-pronged results he felt were being achieved by the committee enterprises.

The group that presented the Doctor I.Q. "broadcast" covering the material dealing with the migration of peoples from Europe had a lot of fun. They devised advertisements, whipped up new gags, gave away used razor blades, toothpicks, and blank sheets of paper as prizes—but they also asked definite, difficult questions and the class members studied hard not only that their team might win, but also that ideas and analyses might not go unchallenged.

The group who wrote a play entitled "The First One Hundred Days of the New Deal" learned much about that period of history and also gained a valuable experience as they were forced to dovetail the multitude of facts and feelings into a thirty-minute broadcast. For the other members of the class, most of whom had only a cold reading acquaintance with that critical period in history, the dramatization brought new feeling as it reflected the period through the events that befell an average American family.

The group of debators rummaged through innumerable books as they sought facts and statements to corroborate their side of the question: "Resolved, That Democracy is Untenable under a Socialistic Form of Economy." Both they and the class members gained a valuable lesson in the importance of defining terms through the debate, and, in addition, it was exciting.

A panel group presented a comprehensive report, "The Decline of European Hegemony," and the book-report group discussed, in casual but complete fashion, the merits, demerits, and implications in the works of Eugene O'Neill, Theodore Dreiser, and Carl Sandburg.

Every student in the class was a member of a group, except one serious young man who had a special idea on how he could construct a relief map to show the changing boundaries in Europe during the nineteenth century. Other students interested in map work presented their graphic results to the class to explain the extent of migration during the seventeenth, eighteenth, nineteenth, and twentieth centuries. A small group of more serious art students engaged in the construction of a mural to depict outstanding events in both cultural and scientific advance from the seventeenth to the twentieth centuries—and they are still pressing "the man" to persuade school authorities to provide a permanent place for their work.

That was the way the year flew by: busy, interesting, challenging, and pleasurable. The man had succeeded in enlisting the aid, expe-

riences, and abilities of fifty other teachers for this course. While he had spent much of his time in the back of the room, there had been plenty of work and fun for him, too. He had kept their information in appropriate chronology and perspective. At the beginning of each unit of study, he had discussed with them the most significant aspects of the material with which they would come in contact, and had provided them with compact outline questions to guide their study. Throughout the semester, students congregated at his office desk where he gave them personal guidance on their committee work and questioned them on their research work. Occasionally he tested them for facts and feelings and always he answered their questions about current affairs and pointed their attention to contemporary problems and developments with which he felt they should be familiar. Then, finally, he had assigned a grade to each, *based on seeing and knowing each one of the fifty students in action as a person and a scholar.*

As the man watched them leave the room after an examination on the last unit, he thought he detected a different look in their eyes from that first day in class. They seemed to have confidence that they were in the swing of things and he hoped that he had helped. He felt that they had found they could enjoy doing research, that their creative ability was functional, that they possessed the ability to appear before a group and work with a group, and that they knew somewhat more than they had about the real meaning of past history as it helps us to understand and to act intelligently in present affairs.

The idea that students should participate actively and honestly in a class experience is old: so old, in fact, that many have ceased to struggle toward the practical achievement of this ideal. Somewhere in the hard experience of the classroom, many a teacher has lost his faith that students can be coaxed, or goaded, or guided into such activity, as has been described. Try again! You have new students: students who are older, wiser, more zealous. This ideal

*can* be made to work today, and if the ideal is as right as we have thought, here is a critical moment to set about the building of a taste and a tradition for the "classroom creative."

It is a truism that one learns by teaching, and this merely means that one learns by participating. We have many would-be participants, new style, waiting impatiently in the wings. "The man in the front of the room" can ill afford to "participate" at their expense, especially when the price of doing so is more paltry outcome for the man himself and stultification for the clients, themselves.

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## INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION AS AN AID TO WORLD PEACE

Emil Lengyel

Interest in international education as an aid to world peace is of recent origin. As long as the world's fate was decided by the "divine rights" of crowned heads it was their inspiration or interest that carried weight. It was not by chance that Machiavelli's message was addressed to a prince.

Even when the conduct of diplomacy passed into the hands of men of less exalted birth, international relations were reserved for practitioners of an occult science. Diplomacy was still secret. Toilers in the dark recesses of foreign offices kept out the searchlight of public curiosity, like medieval alchemists trying to extract gold out of base metal. These depositories of deep secrets were also carriers of ancient traditions, the permanent officials. The nominal heads of the foreign offices were frequently "innocents abroad."

Nor did the Marxist view help to create a more auspicious atmosphere for the understanding of great international problems under the capitalists' rule. The materialistic interpretation of history held that historic events were determined by economic motives that, under the capitalist regime, coincided with capitalist interests. What was the use of preaching international understanding to people who, even though they heard the message, could not be induced to leave their selfish paths?

America's First World War President carried on a crusade for "open covenants openly arrived at." Men of the people, the new diplomats, were to discuss international problems before the public and sign them in dazzling cinema lamplight. In the last analysis, therefore, the people were to become the craftsmen of the new diplomacy. If that was the case, the new masters had to be educated to become the real masters. The dark niches of foreign offices had



to be flooded with the light of public curiosity. The masses would have to become acquainted with the problems of other countries—now their own problems.

The League of Nations was the international instrument of new diplomacy. There the statesmen mounted the rostrum to speak not merely to the assembled delegates, but also to the vast unseen audience of constituents all over the globe.

In order to educate its masters, the League of Nations set up an Organization for Intellectual Cooperation, which in turn founded an Institute of Intellectual Cooperation. Some forty members of the League established National Committees of Intellectual Cooperation. The parent organization was an over-all advisory body. The institute undertook to organize international conferences on social studies and history, in particular, and on libraries, museums, and universities. The national committees were to serve as links between the parent body and the national cultural agencies, especially the schools. The general aim of all of these agencies was to promote peace through education. The French and the Germans were no longer to consider one another mortal enemies. Cultural barriers were to be broken down in danger areas, such as the Balkans. The "masters" of new diplomacy were to be trained to their new functions from the elementary school up to the schools of highest learning. Recognizing that old animosities could be eradicated only if the work was started on the young, a special effort was made to purge school history books of their jingoistic contents. The affinities among the nations were to be stressed, instead of the dividing lines, as in the past. The common man was to become the hero of history, instead of the prince, French, German, and others. An international convention to regulate educational broadcasting was another significant item on the agenda of the O.I.C. Unfortunately, the League went into this work only half-heartedly. It was eight years after the war, in 1926, that the organization got started. Funds were inadequate, and the only paid staff

was an assigned member of the Secretariat of the League of Nations.

The new "masters" shied away from their new responsibility. They, so vocal in the assertion of their domestic rights in the democratic countries, kept on holding to the view that foreign affairs were such an esoteric subject as to require the attention of certified experts. They did not seem to realize the fact that the so-called experts, too, needed guidance in the foreign fields no less than on domestic issues. Nor did they take account of the fact that the masses could not have done any worse than the "specialists."

Apart from the Institute of Intellectual Cooperation, the League of Nations set up a Committee of Experts to consider the instruction of young people in League aims. The importance of charts, slides, films, and reading material was recognized as an aid to an understanding of the historical significance of the League of Nations.

A considerable number of non-League organizations came into existence between the two World Wars with the object of inculcating international understanding in the younger generation. One of the most important of these was the International Bureau of Education, which started as a private organization, but was eventually adopted by several governments, which did not include the United States and Great Britain. The bureau published a bulletin which contained reviews of important works on international education all over the world. It also published a yearbook on the progress of international education and scores of monographs on comparative education in various parts of the world.

Although the United States refused to join the League of Nations, many American educators realized that peace had a far better chance of success if Americans participated in the international educational work, trying to understand other countries, endeavoring to help foreign countries understand the United States, and helping the financially weaker countries take their share of the work.

Shortly after the First World War, the National Education As-

sociation of the United States called an international meeting of educators. At the meeting it sponsored the World Federation of Education Associations to implement "new diplomacy" by cultivating international good will, disseminating information, and, generally, securing international co-operation. Although the League of Nations was dead for America, the ideals of the League were to be kept alive in this country and abroad. The World Federation was set up. Its most important function was the organization of biennial conferences in various world capitals. At these conferences leading educators were to have a chance to become acquainted with the work of the various countries and to exchange information leading to a better understanding among the countries. The last official meeting of the federation was held in Tokyo in 1937. It was inactive during the Second World War.

The Institute of International Education in New York became a clearinghouse for students and scholars in the international field. It collected statistics on the various fellowships of foundations, schools of higher learning, corporations, and governments, particularly in Latin America. It helped these bodies select candidates for exchange. Since we were at peace with the warlike countries that subsequently fought us, it was not possible either for the Institute of International Education nor other similar bodies to interfere with the selection of candidates on the part of the Axis governments. As a result of that, several Axis propagandists entered the United States in the guise of exchange students and scholars.

Interest in this type of work became so strong in the United States that at one time there were some 600 organizations interested in international education, according to a detailed study of this problem.

As the war clouds gathered over Europe and it became more and more evident that Axis aggression might force this country to take its side with Great Britain and other countries threatened by the fascists and their satellites, the United States government also en-

tered the field of international education. The State Department opened the Division of Cultural Relations, of which Ben Mark Cherrington, former chancellor of the University of Denver, became the first director. "Cultural exchanges," Professor Cherrington said, "should involve the direct participation of the people and institutions concerned."

In an effort to bring countries of the Western Hemisphere closer together in a critical hour, the Department of State set up the Office of the Co-ordinator of Inter-American Affairs. The United States Office of Education, under Dr. John W. Studebaker, set up the Division of Inter-American Educational Relations to deal specifically with these matters. An Interdepartmental Committee on Cultural and Scientific Cooperation was also established by the Department of State.

The Second World War intensified interest in international education. It was recognized that much greater efforts must be made in the future than in the past, and also that the former Axis countries must be purged of their educational poison after the war. As far back as 1942 a Conference of Allied Ministers of Education of the countries occupied by the Axis met in London under the chairmanship of the British Minister of Education. It devoted most of its attention to such technical problems as the postwar acquisition of modern equipment to re-establish technical and professional schools. Until the autumn of 1943 the American government was represented at the conference by an observer from the United States Embassy in London, but in that year the Washington authorities announced their intention of co-operating with the conference directly. The Department of State sent a delegation to London in April 1944 in order to implement this decision. That body drafted a constitution for a United Nations organization for educational and cultural reconstruction, which it submitted to the United Nations for study and comment.

This idea underwent many changes and was broadened. When the United Nations was first discussed, international education was

assigned a subordinate role within the competence of the Economic and Social Council. Public opinion became vocal in favor of a far more important role for a crucial problem. The then Assistant Secretary of State of the United States, Archibald MacLeish, made an important announcement on the subject. The top policy-making officials discussed a plan to set up a cultural organization as a separate body of the U.N. The plan was adopted and UNESCO, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, came into existence attached to the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations. The constitution of UNESCO was adopted in the autumn of 1945 by twenty governments. The Soviet Union was not one of them.

UNESCO was to become the top organization to promote international intellectual co-operation through the free exchange of information and ideas on education, art, and science. It was announced as one of the main aims of the organization to supervise and co-ordinate the revision of textbooks, analyze cultural tensions inimical to peace, facilitate the exchange of teachers, students, journalists, professional workers, and enter into association with private organizations with a view toward promoting their work in the field of international education. Its broadest objective was peace through international understanding. Sir Alfred Zimmern was the first executive secretary of the organization, succeeded by Julian Huxley, the great English scientist, who subsequently became its first general director. Headquarters of UNESCO were established in the Hotel Majestic in Paris.

Again the United States took a leading role in pressing for world understanding through education. It did not take too long before plans began to materialize. The Congress of the United States swung into action by voting funds for an exchange of teachers and students, the funds to come from amounts realized through the sale of war assets abroad. As soon as word reached the public about the Congressional action, hundreds of Americans expressed their desire to take a part.



Unofficial America also took a hand in the work. The American Council on Education engaged in studies bearing on the educational work between the United States and Latin America, Canada, and Asia. The American Council of Learned Societies manifested much interest in the promotion of international co-operation through scholarship and research.

The project of a world university was broached. One of the sponsors of such an institution was Professor William E. Rappard, director of the Graduate Institute of International Studies at the University of Geneva, Switzerland, who made his proposal at the Bicentennial Conference of Princeton University last February. The American-European Friendship Society gave its support to the project of the Czechoslovakian author, J. Urzidil, to establish one or more world universities at which the tools may be placed in the hands of statesmen from the people. A similar idea was the one that wished to honor the memory of the late Wendell L. Willkie, the Republican party's nominee for president in 1940, and the author of *One World*, a credo of the oneness of mankind. A movement was launched to establish a world university in Indiana, near the birthplace of the late candidate for president.

If the wartime allies were to remain peacetime allies, too, it was realized that they should endeavor to understand one another. The United States Ambassador to Moscow, Lieutenant General Walter Bedell Smith, proposed to the Soviet government, through Foreign Minister Molotov, that closer cultural and scientific relations should be established between the biggest two of the Big Five through such measures as an exchange of scholars.

Much was said during the war about the need of coaxing the former Axis countries into the fold of peace through education. Shortly after the war, a delegation of American educators visited Japan and drew up a project for scholastic reforms. Numerous American educators had commissions for the performance of educational research projects in occupied Germany. In this connection it may be of interest to the reader if I close by recounting some of my experiences in this field during my recent visit to Central Europe.



With the end of the war, the authorities in the American zone closed the schools in order to be able to screen the teachers and decontaminate the schools themselves. First, they opened elementary schools, followed by the opening of the secondary schools and, finally, the schools of higher learning. The faculties of theology and pure science were opened first, followed by the humanities and, generally, the "political" divisions.

I came across classes in which there were nearly a hundred children. So great was the scarcity of teachers because of battle and political casualties that the teachers were, in some cases, venerable oldsters of both sexes. The teachers under the Nazis had to be *Parteigenossen*, fellow Nazis, or they could not have taught at all.

The worst shortage was in books. Makeshift arrangements had to be employed: teachers improvised texts on the spur of the moment or used prewar, dated books. My impression was that we could have talked less and done far more about "educating" the Germans by preparing books with the aid of German scholars who had been exiled.

I also thought that we were derelict in our duty by failing to provide anti-Nazis with the materials for war against the Nazi ideology. We did not give them books containing democracy's credo in a better world, bringing them up to date on the best thoughts of our scholars in the humanities as well as in the sciences. Evidently, we did not realize that books are weapons in peace no less than in war, perhaps even more so. Nor did we realize that strategic books, in strategic positions, can accomplish far more than the more popular media of public education. Those strategic people could have amplified the voice of those strategic books a thousandfold, as teachers, journalists, and authors. Through them we could have started inculcating our best ideas into the German mind, thus making another attempt to create conditions of a more peaceful world.

On the other hand, we seem to have done good work in the field of popular education through the press and radio. The newspapers

launched by the American occupation forces in the American zones of Germany and Austria are truly first class, representing a broad, democratic point of view. Unfortunately, they are suffering from another drawback. Reading some of them, one would gain the impression that the Russians are our foes and not the Nazi Germans. That is bad policy from more than one point of view. Principally, it is bad policy because it nullifies much of our efforts to help the Germans work their way home. Such squabbles encourage the belief that war will soon come again, this time between the two former allies, and that the Germans will do best to prepare themselves for taking their places alongside the winner. Also, one cannot teach a nation peace by talking war. On the whole, however, it seems that more of us are more conscious of the fact that if peace is to abide in our midst we must do far more in the interest of international education, the road to peace.

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## ONE STEP TOWARD ONE WORLD

James H. Hanscom

Mankind is Samson without a Delilah, with a blindness self-inflicted, with a crew haircut self-administered, and if he brings the temple crashing down about his ears, he must dig himself out of the ruins or perish. History is the tale of crises of man's own creation, and of his groping toward their resolution. It is the record of a dream of annihilating the bonds of space and time, of the nightmare accompanying each achievement toward that end. Ours is the doubtful glory today, of responsibility for solving, in waking clarity, the problems engendered by the age-old dream come true.

From power over the mammoth and the cave bear, to power over other men, and, at last, over the very foundations of matter and the existence of the earth itself, the past unrolls in a persistent and fateful sequence. Slingshot and spear, crossbow and arrow, gunpowder and dynamite, now the atom itself, each toy of destruction has made its irrevocable appearance and been tossed aside for the later and more lethal. From paddling with a stick, sailing with the wind or steam, to riding the tornado of the rocket-spiced plane, the end was foreshadowed in the beginning. The radio voice heard across a nation or a sea was implicit in the first jungle drum to outdistance the reach of a human voice. The ends have been reached to which mankind unwittingly set its face when its world was young; ours are the consummation and its consequences, the new problems created in the solution of the old.

Shrunk to a size where a man's voice starts planetary echoes in the instant of speech and his body leaps a continent between one day's dusk and another's dawn, hanging upon being blasted into infinity at the wiggle of any moron's finger on the trigger of an atom, this world, now so tiny and so perilously fragile, can endure only if man grows in his political and social concepts to the stature reached by his science. Such growth will come through careful action and

sober thought, not through panic or hysteria, not by emulating the hero who leaped on his horse and rode madly away in all directions. The traditional American method will not serve: the thinking "there ought to be a law," the adding of another page to our limitless libraries of legislation, the going thereafter about our daily round under the silly assumption that legal enactment without subsequent action does anything toward abolishing a problem it has merely defined.

No one person or group can build the needed safeguards against international or social irresponsibility and conflict in a world grown too small to permit such license. Nor will there be found some unique panacea, such as Alice discovered after her shrinking brought her chin into collision with her feet. There is no Wonderland mushroom at which our nibbling can stretch space again to its wider bounds, or slow time to its lost leisurely pace.

Nor is it to be expected that social consciousness will suddenly leap into being like the incarnate Wisdom of the Greek myths, when Athene sprang full grown from the brow of Zeus. In mankind's thinking of man, he has too long played Mr. Hyde suddenly to enact Dr. Jekyll after one swig at some single economic, political, or social nostrum.

Since it is international attitudes, political values, and social wisdom that have failed to keep pace with science, among the many contributors to the ultimate solution of man's problems should appear the school—both as a social agency with responsibility inherent in its very existence, and particularly as that agency that can most effectively adopt an immediate program devoted to creating a point of view, a frame of reference, an emotional bias.

To create is easier than to re-create, to form character is far simpler than to reform. Therefore the contribution of the school becomes potentially greater as we approach younger and younger children. The elementary school has an advantage over the secondary, which in its turn excels the college as a place where emotional patterns become habitual.

If proper emphasis is placed, from the beginning, on the likenesses of man, the universality of human reactions to the same stimuli—geographic, political, or of whatever kind—the child of the future will listen in bewilderment, if at all, to appeals for provincialism, and will ignore narrow concepts such as nationalism in the same way that Americans today pay little more than a laughing homage to exaggerated loyalties to New Hampshire or Wyoming. Emotional statism lives today in radio gags and second-rate popular songs; when the colors are trooped, the pennant of Boston or the standard of Connecticut no longer stirs the pulse as does the banner with the stars and stripes. As short a time ago as 1789 this was not true. It is only a forward step in the direction we have long traveled, to add one more and greater loyalty, which will assume to itself what man has given progressively to a city seal, a state symbol, a national crest; the old flags need not come down; the new, the emblem of humanity, need but be raised among them.

If the social studies are to be consistent with the political participation of the United States in the United Nations, the curriculum changes indicated are neither great nor revolutionary.

The concept of regional geography is not new. Its validity has been tested, its efficacy as a method of teaching American reaction to the physical environment has caused the gradual elimination of teaching geography state by state, forty-eight times. Many schools now teach the natural and economic region as the unit, but illogically fail to follow these regions across political boundaries into other nations. The great natural regions of North and South America show a complete disregard of the so-called "borders." It is a simple change to study Maritime Canada and New England as geographically one, the great desert areas of Mexico and the United States as parts of a whole. Geographically, British Colombia differs no more from Washington than that state does from Oregon. The matter becomes the simple one of emphasis. Let the continental geography be emphasized, let national boundaries receive the secondary mention that state lines now do, and the acceptance of the

Canadian, the Mexican, the Honduran, *et al.*, becomes a matter of course. Students then will not receive the jolt that came to their teachers who first stood at a boundary line and saw the sublime disregard by nature for man-made political maps.

It is common practice to include the geography of Latin America in the elementary curriculum, but at another time than when teaching our own nation's geography. Many schools lump together some of the nations more or less on a regional basis, but the emphasis, whether intentional or not, is upon the political separateness rather than on the similarity of man's reactions in the arts of living to the natural surroundings from which he draws his livelihood. Political sovereignty creates passing differences when viewed in the perspective of history, but the mines of Montana and of Bolivia stamp a kinship on those who burrow underground; the Phoenician wife of 700 B.C., the Venetian wife of 1300 A.D., and the Gloucester wife of 1947 know the same long waiting when their men do not come home from the sea whose toil has marked them in unmistakable brotherhood.

The children of men who have built our cities have a right to be as proud of Buenos Aires and Rio de Janeiro, Mexico City, and Quebec as of New York City, New Orleans, and San Francisco. Their birthright is the beauty of demonstrated skill wherever builders have aspired above the heights of the pigsty and the cabin.

Life in Eskimo villages (with undue emphasis on igloos and polar bears), and life in the Congo have for some forty years been the delight of "project" enthusiasts and sand-table architects. That the United States has its marginal lands, and its primitives, never occurs to anyone as a means of bringing a sense of universality into the picture. The lives led by our "Okies" on our national fruit circuits, life without benefit of sanitation, medicine, or education, might prove too primitive for delicate classroom stomachs, but some inclusion of primitivism on our marginal farms could serve to awake the beginnings of a social consciousness, if not a conscience.



Cold-water flats and cold-water igloos have much in common for those who seek to teach universality of human behavior under similar conditions.

History too can expand to continental or hemispheric stature without violence to our present concepts. The story of colonization is usually taught from such a point of view. We need only incorporate in the story of our own struggle for autonomy the corresponding efforts that made of Canada a free dominion, of Latin America a group of republics. The eminence of Washington will not be lessened if Bolivar stands beside him. Our conquest of the land from ocean to ocean, and the problems and impact of the frontier upon us are strengthened by viewing similar cause-and-effect relationships in the Argentine and the Amazon. The United States is not unique in having waged civil war; we have not faced alone the problems of urban culture rising out of an agrarian economy: other nations had their New Deals; others waged war on our enemies, too.

In the literature and science courses Tennyson and Lavoisier are not excluded because their influence reached us from alien shores. There is no reason why the social studies should remain strongholds of provincialism.

Such simple reorientation and expansion of our present point of view as has been indicated above may be challenged on two grounds.

It may be said that such a program builds only a hemispheric or continental understanding. The greatest difficulty comes in the first step away from the traditional content. Once such a step has been taken, with little added burden to teachers already hard pressed to find adequate time for preparation and personal study, the step of expansion of concept to include the globe becomes inevitable, and, when taken, is in itself only one step further.

The second challenge may come from those who see in the suggested program nothing dramatic, no crusade, no reason for the

forming of committees of the part and the whole, nothing to make headlines. It might be said that if tomorrow's citizen is truly to consider himself a part of humanity and not a star-spangled segment of something apart, a movement must be created that will impart the fervor of the fanatic. But the history of crusades is one with doleful postscripts, after the banners and brass bands have passed, after the programs and discussion groups have failed in their competition with union meetings, with the Half-Hour Thursday Afternoon Reading Clubs, with Joe's poker smoker, after the dust has settled in which sleeps Carrie Nation and John Brown, Pope Urban and Woodrow Wilson, Alexander of Macedon and Hitler (late of Berlin), and all the others who have stirred men to act with urgency and immediacy for a cause, the final clarion calls echo down to the present in futile fanfares of derision and defeat.

The acceptance which is broader and deeper than tolerance, the awareness of kinship based on the oneness of the human race will not come through shouting and shooting: it can come through teaching that is positive and patient.

The acorn of man's science is now an oak, the flower is now fruit; it is the time for a new planting in the hope of a new harvest: this time of as great social and spiritual gains as the ancient yearning for arm power, leg power, and voice power meant in terms of ultimate mastery over time and space. Let us begin with the children in order that, on the day they inherit the atom bomb, their heritage may not include the thought of using it on one another. We have a little time yet.

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## RECENT BIBLIOGRAPHY ON INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS

Jesse J. Dossick

William L. Laurence, in his story of how the atom bomb came into being and was used, reveals that the "Atomic Age" began at exactly five-thirty in the morning, on July 16, 1945, on a stretch of semidesert land about fifty air-line miles from Alamogordo, New Mexico.<sup>1</sup> Shortly after, the bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki as Japanese military targets brought the Second World War completely to a halt. The days of peace that have ensued have been uneasy ones. The world finds itself still at the crossroads because of the death-shattering blows that have been dealt the structural basis of our civilization. The crisis that confronted Western civilization in the thirties has not been resolved by any of its actions in the forties thus far. The social sciences, if the themes reflected in our recent books can serve as an indication, cannot be accused of lack of imagination in their multiform recommendations of the roads to be traveled in order to come out of the maze in which we find ourselves.

For many, the promises of hope pregnant in the establishment of an organization of united nations dedicated to the preservation of peace lie in the distant and uncertain future. They believe that the United Nations provides no guarantee of an immediate solution to the world's greatest problem: the evolution of a workable peace while there is still time. Many of our articulate statesmen, university professors, enlightened business and trade-union leaders, journalists, and professional men believe that the only hardheaded approach to the solution lies in the establishment of a world government or federation, heretofore categorized as utopian and unfeasible. They believe that the attempt to achieve the ideal, in the present, is the only realistic attitude one can adopt.

For E. B. White, journalist, and Fremont Rider, professor, the

<sup>1</sup> William L. Laurence, *Dawn Over Zero* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1946).

United Nations Charter is not enough. Mr. White, in his collection of articles for *The New Yorker* on world government, asserts that the security league will not work and the end will be disaster. Our salvation lies in the surrender of sovereignty, the judicial symbol of nationalism, followed by the organization of a world state.<sup>2</sup> Fremont Rider can be found in Mr. White's corner, and to him "the great dilemma in world organization" is the allocation of voting power in the global parliament. The answer to his self-posed problem offered in detail and supported by statistical charts and tables is to base representation on the measured educational standing of the total population of each member state.<sup>3</sup>

Don Luigi Sturzo, the liberal Catholic social leader, speaking in a voice of profound optimism to all faiths, presents the Catholic version of "one world" in his book *Nationalism and Internationalism*.<sup>4</sup> Norman Thomas, political leader, is the latest to plan for world accord. In his book, *Appeal to the Nation*, he reviews the plans that have been tried in the past, analyzes the ones that are being tried today, and then presents his own concrete, constructive proposal.<sup>5</sup>

Waldo Browne in his introduction to *Leviathan in Crisis* states in positive tones that a future world federation of states is inevitable.<sup>6</sup> He believes that the sovereign state is the villain of our present mess and that the state of the future can be intelligently shaped only by those who understand the state of past and present. He therefore presents an international symposium on the state, its past, present, and future, by fifty-four twentieth-century writers to come to a clear understanding regarding what it is and has been in order to determine what our attitude toward the state should be.

<sup>2</sup> E. B. White, *The Wild Flag* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1946).

<sup>3</sup> Fremont Rider, *The Great Dilemma in World Organization* (New York: Reynal and Hitchcock, Inc., 1946).

<sup>4</sup> Don Luigi Sturzo, *Nationalism and Internationalism* (New York: Roy Publishers, 1946).

<sup>5</sup> Norman Thomas, *Appeal to the Nation* (New York: Henry Holt and Company, Inc., 1947).

<sup>6</sup> Waldo Browne, *Leviathan in Crisis* (New York: Viking Press, Inc., 1946).

The economist Edmund Silberner's scholarly study of the relation between war and economics, skillfully presented according to the main schools of economic theory (the liberals, the socialists, and the protectionists or economic nationalists), leads him to conclude that a lasting peace can be best assured in our world today through a world federation.<sup>7</sup>

While these writers and many others, too, argue that world federation is our only hope for survival, opposing views have been and are being expressed just as vigorously. Oron James Hale, for example, in the winter issue of the *Virginia Quarterly Review*, sees "no strong historical current sweeping in that direction."<sup>8</sup> He believes that the beating of the drums for world government bears little relation to the reality of international relations and the postwar surge of nationalisms. He writes "Those who think that Poles and Germans, or Magyars and Rumanians, can forget history and within one generation live in peace and harmony are, to say the least, shockingly uninformed. We may deplore this but it is better to face realities than to ignore them and shout for the millennium. All the world-state advocates entertain one illusion—that nationalism and national states are per se evil; whereas in reality it is the perversions and excesses of nationalism that produce contention, strife, and war."

K. Zilliacus, an official of the League of Nations from 1919 to 1938, at present spokesman in the House of Commons for the left-wing opposition to Foreign Minister Bevin's foreign policy, holds that the proper course of action for the future can best be determined by going back to the First World War and its aftermath to find out what went wrong with the peace so that "having marked out the fatal road, we can flee it for the future as we would flee pestilence and death."<sup>9</sup> Mr. Zilliacus reviews how our civilization

<sup>7</sup> Edmund Silberner, *Problems of War* (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1946).

<sup>8</sup> Oron James Hale, "International Relations: Fact and Fancy," *Virginia Quarterly Review*, Winter Issue, 1947.

<sup>9</sup> K. Zilliacus, *Mirrors of the Past* (New York: A. A. Wyn, 1946).

drifted into the catastrophe of the First World War, why the great western democracies made the first attempt at establishing a system of world government, how they conceived the enterprise, and why it failed.

Sigmund Neumann's *The Future in Perspective*<sup>10</sup> also seeks out the meaning of the past and its challenge to the future, although the story he narrates is of the fateful years since 1914, or, as he refers to it, of the "second thirty years of war." His book deals with the First World War; the first phase of the postwar period (1919-1924); the years of stabilization and reconstruction (1924-1929); the mounting crisis (1929-1934); and the Second World War; pointing at the goal, peace, the challenge of our time.

While one's attention may be arrested by Professor Neumann's presentation and interpretation of facts and by his style, it is more sharply arrested by Mr. Zilliacus' outspoken and provocative depiction of the "deadly parallel" of our road since the Second World War with that of the First World War. "The fatal mistake of those who tackled the job of reconstruction after World War I," he writes, "was that they attempted to restore the pre-war world. . . . They declared that they wanted a real, practical, and effective system of world government." They abandoned the attempt, however, in all but words and reverted to international anarchy and power politics when it became clear that "to pursue these declared aims meant interfering with private enterprise and colonial imperialism, and curtailing national sovereignty." They treated as enemies the Soviet Union and those who wanted to change the social order. The political and economic sacrifices necessary to ensure world peace were not made.

As a matter of fact, to many people, world stability is tied up in the relationships of America and Russia. It is taken for granted that both Germany and Japan can and will be prevented from

<sup>10</sup> Sigmund Neumann, *The Future in Perspective* (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1946).



threatening the peace of the world again, provided the Soviet Union and the Western allies can agree to the terms of peace. Max Lerner writes:

Between them they represent the polar points of future growth in world order. If they can resolve their tensions, then the world's future is assured. If they cannot, then chaos will be king. The beginning of wisdom for Americans is to recognize that while Russian diplomacy presents real problems for American diplomacy, they are soluble problems; that the functions of the United Nations machinery will be smoothed exactly to the extent that America and Russia resolve their crisis of confidence; and that the real stumbling block of peace is the bitterness and blindness of those who use the symbol of Russia as the screen for their fear of social change in the world at large.

Opinion is divided, however, on whether reconciliation of the socialist and capitalist orders is the essential of any hope for world order. There are many who disagree with Lerner and Zilliacus. They call for a showdown with Russia as the method of building the peace, believing that Soviet expansion extends the area of dictatorship in the world. Louis Fischer in *The Great Challenge* advocates a third way when he urges the blocking of the extension of Soviet power territorially by effective international organization and coping with her ideologically by extending democracy in those areas that fall within her spheres and upon which she seems to be focusing her attention.<sup>11</sup>

To Edward Hallet Carr, specialist in international politics, and voice of a certain section of Laborite England seeking a middle road between capitalist America and Soviet Russia, the question is not whether the world can survive a war between the Soviet Union and the Western world, but, rather, can the Western world, and England in particular, survive peace?<sup>12</sup> In his small volume, composed of six lectures delivered last year at Oxford, he examines the

<sup>11</sup> Louis Fischer, *The Great Challenge* (New York: Duell, Sloan and Pearce, 1946).

<sup>12</sup> Edward Hallet Carr, *The Impact of Soviet Influence Upon the Western World* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1946).

impact of Soviet practices, criticism, and teachings, both negative and positive, upon the Western world in politics, economic and social spheres, and international and ideological relations.

Despite the differences one may have with his conclusions concerning how to prepare to meet the Russian challenge and his recommendations for compromise between the Soviet way and that of the West, the urgency of the questions he poses makes for rewarding reading.

What is the relationship between democracy and communism as seen through the eyes of a Marxist? A. Landy in the Foreword of his book, *Marxism and the Democratic Tradition*, claims that while it is true that capitalism and communism are fundamentally opposite social systems, democracy and communism are not inevitably opposed.<sup>18</sup> He traces the development of communism as an integral part of the democratic struggle in the democratic revolution of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. His final chapter outlines Marxism and the fight for democracy during the past hundred years.

Americans in general do not possess too much factual information regarding the Soviet Union. As Dr. G. T. Robinson of Columbia University so aptly remarked, "Never did so many know so little about so much." Two new books, appearing simultaneously, designed to alleviate that condition, both presenting a comprehensive survey of life in the Soviet Union, are: *USSR: A Concise Handbook*, edited by Ernest J. Simmons and published by Cornell University Press, and *Understanding the Russians*, edited by Bernhard J. Stern and Samuel Smith, published by Barnes and Noble. The first of these books includes twenty-seven readable articles, by twenty contributors who are acknowledged authorities in their particular fields. The articles deal with the peoples, territories, history, government, economy, agriculture, industry, communications, medicine, education, religion, armed forces, philosophical thought, lan-

<sup>18</sup> A. Landy, *Marxism and the Democratic Tradition* (New York: International Publishers Company, Inc., 1946).

guage, drama, music, art, architecture, and science of the Soviet Union. Each article is supplemented by a bibliography.

The second book also provides a good opportunity to evaluate Soviet life and culture through the eyes of fifty-one American, British, and Russian authorities, all similarly recognizable as experts in their particular topics. In addition to covering the same ground outlined in the preceding paragraph, Stern and Smith include the following source materials: the Constitution of the Soviet Union; the Soviet census of 1939; a table of Soviet nationalities; the state budget of the U.S.S.R. for 1945, the five-year plan of the U.S.S.R. for 1946-1950; and edicts relating to state aid for mothers and children.

A good supplement to these two books is the *USSR, A Geographical Survey*, by James S. Gregory and D. W. Shave. First published in London in 1944, now being offered to American readers, this book helps to fill the gap found heretofore in our knowledge of Russia's geographical background and economic resources.

One of the contributors to Mr. Simmons' handbook, John Somerville, has explored Soviet philosophy in a larger work published by the Philosophical Library. Mr. Somerville explains that the aim and scope of the volume is merely to report the facts and not to evaluate them, for an honest understanding of the Soviet Union can only be achieved by those who examine the exposition of its philosophy, at the same time taking into cognizance that "in the Soviet Union philosophy is not looked upon as a purely theoretical enterprise, but as a living instrument with a part to play in the building of a new life."

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## SIGNIFICANT DEVELOPMENTS IN EDUCATION

### The G.I. and Postwar Education

I have just come to the western end of a five-thousand-mile trip through sixteen states and have visited most of the important colleges, teachers colleges, and universities. One of the purposes of these visits was to ascertain, as far as possible, the status of the postwar education of the men who have served our country in the Second World War, recently brought to a close. It would be impossible in this article to do more than to indicate some of the more outstanding impressions and their educational significance, and these cannot be discussed in detail.

In the first place it is necessary to note the fact that for many years the sociologist (who happened to have an interest in education, and few have) and many educators have emphasized the theory that the future of our democracy and the advancement of the democratic way of life in the world depends upon the utilization of the entire period of growth of youth, which extends at least to the twenty-first year of his life, for purposes of education and not for economic production. This does not mean that adolescents may not engage in productive activity. It does mean that both activity and study during the period of growth must contribute to the education of youth, to the development of its personality, to the growth of the whole person for participation in the life of the community, the state, and the world. All activity and study during the growth period of youth can be conceived of only in its value in achieving for youth his maximum potentialities; that is his education in the fullest sense.

However, in spite of this theory of education long held by our leaders, the average education of the American citizen at the cessation of the First World War was a sixth-grade achievement, and at the end of the Second World War a tenth-grade average; both fell far short of the theoretical requirement. Moreover, the type of education of youth was essentially book study, which bore slight relation to the needs of the individual in the social life. It has been my purpose to determine so far as possible whether the postwar education of the servicemen has had the effect of prolonging the period of education and whether the program offered the G.I. has been better adapted to his needs.

The answer to the first of these purposes is obvious. The servicemen have flocked to the colleges and universities. The undergraduate student

bodies in co-educational institutions consist of from 40 to 60 per cent of personnel from the armed services. Youth has flocked en masse to higher institutions of learning. College training is the apparent goal of youth and this is the evident accomplishment of the war. But has this youth flocked to the universities and colleges for an educational "joy ride" as some have contended?

New York University has sixteen thousand of these students and Chancellor Chase has the following to say about them: "The enthusiasm with which the veterans, all predictions to the contrary notwithstanding, have flocked back to school, the persistency with which they stay in school, the quality of their work, all evidence something totally different from the desire for a 'joy ride' at government expense. It is, in short, the most convincing demonstration of faith in higher education that this country has ever witnessed. I agree that it is very largely vocationally motivated, but so has our higher education been all along since it ceased to be class privilege and became our chief high road for preparation for life." The statement by Chancellor Chase summarizes the conclusions of practically all of the university officers I have consulted about the general attitude and purpose of our returned service men and women.

I should like now to summarize some of the more important conclusions that I have arrived at as a result of the study of thousands of veteran students in colleges and universities I have visited:

1. As a result of the war and the G.I. demand for education, the demands of youth will require that we at least provide junior-college education for all youth. Where youth, for financial reasons, is unable to acquire this schooling, it will have to be provided at public expense, either through scholarships or other appropriate means. Youth will no longer be content with less than the junior-college education that it believes will better equip it for life services.

2. The ex-service men and women are serious-minded about education. They are above the average of the student body, in seriousness, in industry, in scholarship, and in devotion to study and duty.

3. They are, in general, suspicious of college authorities and are watchful to see that they are not imposed upon. Conflicts have frequently arisen between college authorities and students. However, students are reasonable, and when the authorities have admitted the student behind the scenes they have cooperated fully. An example is found at Tempe, Arizona, at the State College. The students were dissatisfied with housing arrangements. President Gammage appointed a committee nomi-

nated by the ex-service students to work with the college authorities, and the problem was solved.

4. Ex-service men and women will not accept the conventional type of program and instruction without protest, and even rebellion. They insist upon instruction that relates to their needs as they see them and not as the instructor sees them. General, theoretical instruction that bears little relation to their problems is taboo. Perhaps somewhere between the ideas of the professor and the students will be the right solution, and compromise is in order.

5. The demand of the G.I. is for vocational education that will meet his needs, and this in turn will require a revamping of the whole college program. Exclusive book study will no longer satisfy ex-service-men. Moreover, this new emphasis is being rapidly taken over by the other students, so that the college can never revert to the prewar conventional program of studies or the method of instruction. We need a new type of education on the higher levels for a new world.

6. The program that will satisfy the G.I. now and the college student to enter the higher institutions of learning later will be a work-study curriculum that will bear directly upon the problems and needs of the students, that will develop to the fullest the inherent potentialities of the person, that will equip a person for service in the community and world of affairs, that will develop civic-mindedness and social understanding; in short, an education that will equip youth for civic living and for vocational competency.

In conclusion, we should say that we are far from the realization of the type of program and methods of instruction that will satisfy the demands of ex-service men and women and that will satisfy the college student of the future. This is the challenge of the educational profession.

E. GEORGE PAYNE



## BOOK REVIEWS

*Teaching Social Studies in Elementary Schools*, by EDGAR B. WESLEY and MARY A. ADAMS. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1946, 362 pages.

This book is a broad survey of practices and possibilities in social studies teaching at the elementary school level. Its especial merits are style and organization and one reads it easily. It achieves both a reasonable catalogue of what is being done and a stimulating suggestiveness of what can be done, without becoming stuffy and dull on the one hand or glossily unrealistic on the other. The book rests on the assumption that there is close to universal acceptance of the purposes of the "new" elementary school in its shift from emphasis on curriculum to emphasis on pupil. In this spirit, the field of social studies is regarded as limited only by the area of pupil needs, so far as those needs arise from direct or vicarious contact with social groups.

JOHN C. PAYNE

*Democratic Experience and Education in the National League of Women Voters*, by SARAH BARBARA BRUMBAUGH. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1946, 115 pages.

This is an overview of democratic experience and education as exemplified by the National League of Women Voters. The membership of the League is nonpartisan, so it is open to all women who are interested in becoming intelligent citizens. Democracy is emphasized, too, in organizational procedure and educational method. The following areas concerning the League are described: a historical and descriptive survey; educative process; philosophy of education; pressure group for good government; and a summary that highlights strengths and weaknesses of the League. Organizations that are seeking suggestions for democratic organizations and educational procedures may profit from this book.

HENRIETTA FLECK

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*Program of*  
**THE JOURNAL**  
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*for 1947-1948*

1. *September*—Evaluation of Agencies and Programs in Intergroup Relations  
—Issue Editor, Leo Shapiro  
Enormous sums are spent annually on human-relations programs. What do they accomplish? This issue will attempt some answers.
2. *October*—General Issue
3. *November*—Twenty-five Years of Teacher Training at New York University—Issue Editor, E. George Payne, Dean Emeritus, New York University School of Education  
This enlarged issue will be a case study of the growth of a school of education from 140 to 10,000 students in twenty-five years time.
4. *December*—The Next Twenty-five Years in Teacher Education—Ernest O. Melby, Dean, New York University School of Education  
This issue will be an attempt to blueprint the direction that education will take in the next twenty-five years.
5. *January*—Recreation—Issue Editor, Jay B. Nash  
This issue will survey one of the most important aspects of education.
6. *February*—Democracy and Opportunity for Higher Education—Issue Editor to be selected  
It is proposed that this issue will be an analysis and interpretation of the report of the New York State Temporary Commission, which is presently surveying the needs for a state university in New York City.
7. *March*—Physical Science and the New Patterns for Life—Issue Editor, Charles J. Pieper.  
The challenge of physical science to the present social order.
8. *April*—Social Security and Education—Issue Editor, Ira De A. Reid  
A presentation of one of the larger problems of American life today is the object of this issue.
9. *May*—Programs in Human Relations—Issue Editor, Hilda Taba  
This issue presents some of the outstanding work done by the American Council on Education in co-operation with various other agencies during the past two years.

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